

The Nation.

VOL. II.

NEW YORK, MONDAY EVENING, MAY 28, 1866.

NO. 52

J. H. RICHARDS, PUBLISHER,
130 Nassau Street.

ISSUED EVERY TUESDAY AND FRIDAY.

FIVE DOLLARS PER ANNUM
SEVEN CENTS PER COPY.

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Topics of the Day.

THE speech of Senator Stewart on Thursday, touching the reconstruction amendment, was admirable in many respects, and particularly so in its statement of the real relation of parties and its frankness in meeting the issue avoided by the Committee of Fifteen. In effect, as he says, the Union party is the party of negro suffrage, the Democratic party the opposite; and the former may count on the sympathy of mankind. To exclude the intellectual heads of the rebellion from office and a loyal population from the ballot-box is only to raise up new and baser leaders for the disloyal. Therefore the senator was in favor of abandoning disfranchisement for enfranchisement as the efficient safeguard against reaction. We believe that this is not merely the language of statesmanship, but that it only needs to be adopted by Congress to secure the general assent of the people, among whom, of course, we do not reckon the people of the States that revolted, because we do not hold their assent necessary to any constitutional amendment, and because none that would best serve the interests of the country would ever receive their voluntary adhesion.

THE bill for the equalization of bounties which passed the House on Friday obtained the enormous majority of 137 in a house of 141. This was partly owing to what has been called "the tyranny of the previous question." Still, the House would at any rate have passed a bill with the main features of this one and passed it very likely by a majority as large. Both parties voted for it, of course, even such Democrats as Mr. Le Blond and Mr. A. J. Rogers being desirous of giving bounties to the soldiers and sailors—a practical endorsement of the war which may, perhaps, give their wing of the party the right to be styled War Democrats in future. The bill gives \$8 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ a month to each soldier, sailor, and marine for every month between April, 1861, and April, 1865, during which he was disabled by wounds or was in active service—provided, however, that from this sum be deducted all the bounties which have been already paid, or are now payable, by the United States, or by any county, city, or town. It will probably add to the burden of the public debt the sum of \$200,000,000, or even more, and we believe that the men for whose benefit the bill pretends to have been passed would themselves defeat the measure if it were submitted to them. No class of the community has been anxious for it except the politicians, and they, whether of the one party or the other, are loud in its advocacy. It is said that the fate of the bill in the Senate is by no means beyond a doubt—an assertion which is so far honorable to that body.

FEW persons have any but a vague idea of the injury directly inflicted on American commerce by the operations of rebel privateers. It is even rather surprising to learn that the Confederacy, first and last, had no less than twenty-five armed vessels engaged in these depredations. \$25,546,000 is the estimated value of all the vessels of all kinds captured, and the value of vessels and cargoes not bonded and released, but actually destroyed, was \$20,088,000. The total number of vessels taken in this way, by the enemy, was 283; of which 6 were steamers, 81 ships, 83 barques, and 70 were schooners. The *Aleutian* was, of course, most destructive. It will interest both Englishmen and Americans to know, and we hope, eventually, Englishmen still more than Americans, that her captures numbered 69 vessels, worth \$9,750,000. Next in number of victims comes the *Shenandoah*, with a list of 38 vessels, worth \$2,888,000. But the captures of the *Florida*, though only 35 in number, were worth considerably more, being valued at \$4,054,000. New York was the greatest loser, 41 of her vessels being captured; but New Bedford suffered more, for of her smaller marine 28 vessels were taken. Philadelphia and Boston lost 12 each. For these facts we are indebted to a statement whose accuracy is not doubtful, compiled by the acting secretary of the New York Chamber of Commerce.

THE latest legislation of Tennessee is in striking contrast with her legislation of only one year ago. She has just passed a law which re-enacts the civil rights bill and makes her black citizens equal before the law with the white. This is another not uncertain indication of the change which has been rapidly going on in the general sentiment of the country. Whether or not the improvement has already proceeded so far in Tennessee, in the region round Memphis, for instance, that Assistant Commissioner Fisk was quite justified in forthwith abolishing the Freedmen's Courts throughout the State, is a question which, in view of that officer's past course, we are not entirely unwilling to leave him to answer. He will be ready to rectify his action if it proves mistaken.

A PART at least of the people of North Carolina admit that their present assembling in adjourned convention is due to the belief entertained in October last that "by possibility, in the course of events, further action in the premises might be required or demanded by the President of the United States." But whereas these expected demands have not been made; and whereas, therefore, the October convention, it seems, did satisfactorily accomplish the purpose for which it was called; and whereas, by consequence, civil law is, as it ought to be, paramount; therefore, it was moved that the convention should at once adjourn. But this, by a vote of two-thirds of its members, it refused to do, either the premises or the conclusion failing to command assent. The conclusion, probably, for the message of Governor Worth, the choice of a majority of North Carolinians, asserts principles not much different from those of the resolutions, and demands immediate admission for North Carolina senators and representatives. Having made very good terms, this State naturally feels disposed to insist on them.

A FORTNIGHT ago we gave a description of Dr. Andrews's latest and perhaps greatest invention, the flying ship. His first trial trip has been made and the vessel is said to have behaved exceedingly well. We

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have only the report of the inventor himself and his friends as to the details of the ascent, but this at least seems certain, from the testimony of observers, that the ship did not drift slavishly with the wind and was repeatedly turned in different directions—in other words, momentum was given to a balloon and its course was changed at the will of its passengers. These are great advances in the art of aerostation; they are advances so great as to open a new epoch in that art and perhaps in the whole business of travelling.

THE Washington *Intelligencer* has recently discussed the Jefferson Davis trial in an elaborate article, and, with regard to the probable result of the trial, has arrived at the conclusion that it must be one of the three things—a verdict of guilty, or a verdict of not guilty, or the disagreement of the jury. This reminds us of "the Irishman" who, on being congratulated by a friend on the birth of a child, and asked whether it was a boy or a girl, requested him to guess. He guessed a girl, and on learning that he was wrong said, "Then it was a boy." "Ah!" said the father, "somebody tould ye."

MR. RAPHAEL SEMMES—or, as some of the papers now call him, "Ex-Pirate Semmes"—has gone to Washington to qualify for the office of probate judge at Mobile, by getting himself pardoned. He and his friends seem to have forgotten that this little formality is a necessary preliminary to the assumption of all offices of honor and profit at the South. It costs so little both in money and time that there is no excuse for omitting it, even in the case of the most hardened rebel.

OUR list of exchanges having become inconveniently large, we have with considerable reluctance reduced it.

THE military movements in Europe are beginning to assume a strategic character. At last accounts bodies of Austrian troops occupied the northern—Bohemian and Silesian—frontiers of the empire; a Bavarian army was approaching the confines of Bohemia, probably for co-operation with the Austrians; the Prussians were massed on the borders of Saxony, threatening an invasion of that kingdom; considerable transfers of troops were taking place in Venetia, and the Italian naval squadron was reported to have taken up a position between Ancona and Grossa, an island near the Dalmatian coast, thus blocking up the entrance to the northern part of the Adriatic, and, so to say, beginning the blockade of Trieste, Venice, and Fiume. Garibaldi had accepted the command of the Italian volunteers, the Senate had concurred with the Chamber in granting extraordinary powers to the King, and the enthusiasm of the people was still on the rise. Parts of the Austrian empire, Bohemia and Galicia, also evinced great alacrity for the war, while public opinion in Hungary seemed to be in suspense, to be decided by the Emperor's determination to restore or not to restore the liberties of the country. The impression was that Francis Joseph was about granting Hungary a responsible government in accordance with the laws of 1848, and placing it under the regency of the Empress. The armaments and works of fortification were pushed forward with increased energy. The Prussian ambassador was on the eve of leaving Vienna. A conditional treaty had been concluded between Prussia and Italy, and a threatening note addressed by the latter power to Hanover, demanding disarmament and a strict neutrality. The military occupation of both Hanover and Electoral Hesse by the Prussians was expected. Public opinion in Prussia, however, seemed to be little in accordance with the warlike efforts of the Government, and earnest demonstrations in favor of peace were not wanting. The Rhenish province was particularly alarmed on account of the war, threatened as it is by French invasion. To gain the favor of the majority of the people, Bismarck, it was stated, intended modifying his cabinet on the basis of a coalition with the Liberals. Demands for the convocation of a German parliament were loud throughout Germany; in Vienna the re-assembling of the Reichsrath was urged by the independent press. A conference of ministers from the minor German States was assembled at Bamberg.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 26, 1866.

THE slow progress of debate in the Senate upon the problem of reconstruction, as presented in the report of the Joint Committee, is impatiently criticised by many. All of this week was to have been devoted to this measure, instead of which but three speeches have yet been made, and the vote upon it seems very remote indeed. Two prolonged caucuses of Republican senators have failed to agree upon united action, and another is to be held, the object of course being to avoid the semblance of division in their public action in the Senate. It appears to be nearly certain, however, that the third section, embodying the futile disfranchisement until 1870 of the participants in rebellion, will be abandoned.

The House has made fine progress with practical legislation, having about finished the tax bill. Nearly all the amendments hitherto made having been in the direction of a reduced revenue, a step in the opposite direction was yesterday taken by restoring to the bill the ten per cent. tax upon all incomes over \$5,000 per annum. The publication of the income returns in the newspapers has been put an end to, the argument being that it is inquisitorial.

DIARY.

May 23.—In the Senate, the constitutional amendment reported by the Joint Committee on Reconstruction was taken up. Mr. Sumner favored postponing action upon it until July 1. The Senate determined to proceed with the discussion, and Messrs. Howard and Wade made speeches. Mr. Clark moved as a substitute for the disfranchisement clause, that no person who aided the rebellion shall ever hold office under the United States. Mr. Wade offered a substitute for the whole bill, providing that no State shall abridge the rights of any person born within the United States, and that no class of persons as to whose right to suffrage discrimination shall be made by any State except on the ground of intelligence, property, or rebellion, shall be included in the basis of representation.

In the House, the tax bill occupied the day and evening. It was amended so as to exact an income tax of 10 per cent. on all sums over \$5,000, leaving those below \$1,000 free from tax, and taxing incomes from \$1,000 to \$5,000 5 per cent.

May 24.—In the Senate, a special committee was ordered to report upon Government deposits in national banks. The House bill relating to appointments to the West Point Military Academy was amended so as to require the nomination by each Congressman authorized to appoint cadets of not less than five persons, out of whom the selection of one shall be made according to merit and qualifications, under rules prescribed by the Secretary of War. Mr. Stewart spoke three hours on the constitutional amendment favoring the extension to the States lately engaged in rebellion of all civil and political rights, on condition of their extending impartial suffrage to all their people. Mr. Johnson moved to strike out the third section. Mr. Sherman offered a substitute for the second and third sections, apportioning representation according to the number of male citizens qualified to vote by State laws, and apportioning direct taxes according to the value of real and personal property.

In the House, the Senate amendments to House joint resolution to prevent the introduction of cholera were concurred in. The bill to amend and continue in force the Freedmen's Bureau act was taken up. Mr. Stevens moved to strike out a provision authorizing the purchase of land at \$25 an acre to supply homes in lieu of the freedmen's lands now occupied under Gen. Sherman's field orders, and to insert a provision that no such lands shall be surrendered. Adopted—yeas, 79; nays, 46.

May 25.—In the Senate, the House joint resolution relative to appointments to the U. S. Military Academy was passed.

In the House, the bill for equalization of bounties, by paying to every soldier of the United States at the rate of \$100 per year of actual service, deducting therefrom what has already been received from local or national bounties, was passed—yeas, 139; nays, 2. The tax bill was discussed and amended, the House rejecting an amendment to reduce the tax on spirits from \$2 to \$1 per gallon.

May 26.—The Senate did not sit. The House spent the day on the tax bill.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE colored people of Wilmington, N. C., have forwarded through Gen. Howard to the President a petition, signed by upwards of one hundred and twenty-five colored men, praying the President that he "will scrutinize well the accusations which are made against" the officers of the Bureau in North Carolina "by our enemies, and withhold condemnation until the truth can be developed. We pray you not to let our stronghold of defence be stricken down." They moreover state that they have learned with regret and pain that those officers have been placed in arrest who were engaged in the cultivation of the land; that these agents were earnestly solicited to this work by the planters and by the freed people, in order that the free labor system might have an opportunity of development. They speak with great praise of Majors Wickersham and Mann. This petition was prepared and forwarded without the knowledge of the Bureau. Gen. Whittlesey has been relieved and Gen. Ruger ordered to perform the duties of assistant commissioner in addition to those of military commander.

Notes.

LITERARY.

THE recent fire at the Academy of Music was disastrous to science as well as to music. In the Academy itself the orchestral scores of many operas were burned, as well as a large amount of costumes and scenery whose loss will be felt by no one but the owners, as they were very shabby. But there were destroyed in the University Medical College the valuable museum of anatomical and surgical preparations prepared by the late Dr. Mott; anatomical and medical collections belonging to Drs. Post, Bedford, and Van Buren; a very large herbarium made by Dr. Paine; and the mineralogical, geological, and botanical museum of the Lyceum of Natural History. The loss of Dr. Draper is still more severe. His library and his chemical apparatus, his delicate and costly instruments, are all gone; and, worse than all, his unpublished notes containing the results of researches and experiments for thirty years. The glasses of the large telescope of Dr. Henry Draper, with which he took his beautiful photographs of the moon, were also destroyed. By another fire last Thursday night, at 654 Broadway, Mr. Scribner's book-store was very greatly damaged by water. Mr. Scribner had recently removed his establishment to Broadway and was about getting settled. A large number of beautiful editions of English books had been just sent over by Mr. Welford, but many of them, we are glad to learn, were still in the Custom House. His loss on books can hardly fall short of \$30,000.

—Mr. Payne Collier has lately discovered a very interesting manuscript, once the property of Sir Christopher Hatton, as his signature attests. It consists of the instructions given by Thomas Norton (who, conjointly with Sackville, wrote the tragedy of "Gorboduc"), then Remembrancer of the city of London, to the Lord Mayor of that time (1573), for the proper discharge of the duties of his office. Several new facts in Norton's biography are elicited by this document—that he was Remembrancer, that he sat in Parliament for the city, and that he was born in London, and not at Sharpenhoe, Bedfordshire, as commonly supposed. It is a valuable illustration of the state of London at that time, for it goes carefully over the whole city and shows the abuses that needed reforming. One singular point is that the author of the first blank-verse tragedy condemns without reserve all public dramatic exhibitions, and inveighs especially against the performances of a set of Italian women-tumblers. The document will be printed by Mr. Collier. He has just issued Nos. 19 and 20 of his specimens of "Old English Literature," consisting of Hubbard's unique poem "Ceyx and Alei-one," and the earliest English prose autobiography, Venard's "Apology for his Life" and for his early dramatic entertainment produced in 1602, called "England's Joy."

—The success of the explanations of the Grecian and Eastern myths by the comparative mythologists has led enquirers to investigate with more care the mythical and romantic stories that are floating everywhere, and are applied now to one person and now to another. We know that anecdotes circulate around the world with blanks ready to be filled in with names and dates, and we often hear as of recent occurrence stories that were told by Greeks and Indians. The story of William Tell is the story of Palnatoki, though the Swiss romancer probably never heard of the Sanskrit legend. Both belong to the common story-fund of the world. The romantic histories of the Saxon kings which we find in William of Malmesbury and Roger of Wendover, so amplified from the meagre accounts of the Saxon Chronicles, are now being studied and the kernels of fact are being eliminated. Mr. Edward A. Freeman, in a late number of the "Fortnightly Review," performs this unshelling process on two English tales, the supposed murder of Ædwine by his brother Æthelstan, and the legend of Eadgar, Æthelwold, and Ælfthryth. The first took its rise from the mere circumstance that Ædwine was drowned at sea, and the second from the probable fact that Eadgar married the widow of Æthelwold soon after his death, and probably against some canonical rule. These stories were founded on early ballads. It is interesting to see how in the legend of "Ædwine" there is introduced the stock story of an accusation by an unfaithful servant, the finding out of the truth, and the subsequent punishment of the traitor. The same story is repeated about King Æward and the murder of his brother Ælfred on the accusation of Earl Godwine, and the subsequent death of the earl. It is of great advantage to compare these stories, as well as those of Wallace and the Bruce, and the legends of Charlemagne, with what we know to be real historical facts. In this way hints are given us as to the method of dissection of those classical myths that rest on a quasi-historical basis.

—After the revolution of 1848, the provisional government published a large quarto volume, with M. Taschereau as editor, entitled "Revue Hébreuse sur les Archives Secrètes du Dernier Gouvernement." In this was included all the most confidential correspondence of the ex-king, his family, ministers, and ambassadors, that the government could find in the royal palaces. M. Guizot, in his "Mémoires," gives many particulars of the domestic life and personal character of Louis Philippe. Since the death of the ex-Queen Marie-Amélie there have been published portions of a series of letters from the king to his sister, Madame Adélaïde, which escaped the grasp of M. Taschereau in 1848. They extend from 1839 to 1845, and embrace all sorts of topics, from his first impressions of Lord Palmerston's Eastern policy to the minutest particulars of his domestic life. They are written without any constraint to this sister, who exercised such a powerful influence on him, and are mere off-hand and familiar talk. We see here all the anxiety of this citizen-king, this "commis-voyageur de la maison Orléans," as Heine called him, for the welfare and safety of his children and grandchildren; his troubles during the illness of the Comte de Paris, who would be very hungry and cry for "souillé"; his annoyances caused by the gardeners at St. Cloud and the architects at Fontainebleau. He tells of his arrangements for a review, in which he speaks of his desire of pleasing "ce bon Cass," as he styles the American minister; and of the suitors who come for the hand of the Princesse Clémentine, whom he nicknames Clem. We hope the whole of the letters will be published, as they are valuable illustrations of the peculiarities and foibles of a king whose motto was "Never mind."

—The great work of Dr. Bastiah, "The Nations of Eastern Asia—Studies and Travels," will soon be published in five volumes. The first volume will bear the title of "The History of the Indo-Chinese," and is based on their historical books and oral traditions. The author is trying to fill a void that has existed already too long, and has availed himself of a long stay in Further India to collect materials, both written and oral. The second, third, and fourth volumes will contain the journal of his travels in Burma in 1861, his residence in Siam and travels in Cambodia and Cochinchina in 1863, and his journey through the Archipelago to Japan and China, and by the overland route from Pekin through Mongolia and Siberia to the Caucasus in 1864–5. To illustrate the literature of the nations of Eastern Asia, translations of their poems, romances, and tales will be given. In the last volume the author purposes to show the present state of Buddhism as it exists in South-eastern Asia, and as he saw it in his intercourse with the monks, and a comparison of it with Foisim and Lamaism.

—One of the best Hebrew scholars of Europe has just died, Dr. Hupfeld, professor in the University of Halle. He was born at Marburg, in 1796, and early devoted himself to the study of philosophy and theology. In 1819 he became professor in the Gymnasium at Hanau. Having resigned this office in consequence of ill-health, he went to Halle and became a pupil of Gesenius. After a professorate at Marburg, on the death of Gesenius he was chosen his successor. He was the author of a Hebrew grammar, a work on the authorship of Genesis, and a commentary on the Psalms, besides minor works on topics relating to the Oriental languages and to Biblical criticism. His death, which took place suddenly on the 24th of April, leaves a place hard to be filled, as Hebraists are becoming every day rarer.

—At the city of Etchmiadzin, near Mt. Ararat, the seat of the Armenian Patriarch, there exists a splendid library of about 3,000 Armenian manuscripts, which has hitherto been inaccessible to scholars. A catalogue of the library has been prepared, the MSS. are thrown open to scholars, and notice has been given that extracts will be sent to the learned in all parts of the world who will pay the expense of copying them out. Among the works in the library are unpublished books of the Fathers, and unpublished fragments of Aristotle and Diodesorus Siculus.

—Members of the Health Commission and others interested in the utilization of the sewage, a subject which is rightfully attracting much attention abroad, will be glad to learn that an exhaustive treatise on the subject has just been published at Zurich by the city engineer, A. Bürkli, with the title, "Ueber Anlage städtischer Abzugskanäle und Behandlung der Abfallstoffe aus Städten."

—Messrs. D. Appleton & Co. announce reprints of David Masson's "Recent British Philosophy;" "The Conversion of the Northern Nations," by Charles Merivale; Dr. William Smith's "Old Testament History," and Miss Yonge's "Dove in the Eagle's Nest;" also a translation of Carl Ritter's "Geography of the Holy Land," an edition of Bain's "Manual of Composition and Rhetoric," by G. P. Quackenbos, a "Life of President Johnson, by a Southerner," and the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1863.

SCIENTIFIC.

UTILIZATION OF THE SUN'S HEAT.—As bearing upon the question of the ultimate exhaustion of the coal fields, which was discussed in a recent number of *THE NATION*, and the possibility of substituting other sources of power for the fossil fuel which is now so important an element in the existing order of human society, it is of interest to recall a series of experiments made some years since by Sir John Herschel, at the Cape of Good Hope. Near the extremity of the cape, between Table Bay on the one side and False Bay upon the other, is a sandy region known as the Cape Flats, upon which the sun pours down its rays without hindrance. Herschel's attention having been attracted by the very high temperature which the surface soil of these flats acquires under exposure to sunshine, he proceeded to make careful thermometrical observations in the spring of 1837 (October and December), and determined that the temperature of the sand and vegetable mould was often as high as 140° to 150°, and this in the open field. "When, however, the heat communicated from the sun is confined and prevented from escape, and so forced to accumulate, very high temperatures are attained. Thus, in a small mahogany box, blackened inside, covered with window-glass fitted to the size, but without putty, and simply exposed perpendicularly to the sun's rays, an enclosed thermometer marked, on November 23, 1837, 149; on November 24, 146, 150, 152, etc., etc. When sand was heaped round the box, to cut off the contact of cold air, the temperature rose, on December 3, to 177; and when the same box, with its enclosed thermometer, was established under an external frame of wood well sanded up at the sides, and protected by a sheet of window-glass (in addition to that of the box within), the temperatures attained on December 3 were, at 1.30 P.M., 207; at 1.50 P.M., 217.5°; and at 2.44 P.M., 218; and that with a steady breeze sweeping over the spot of exposure. Again, on December 5, under a similar form of exposure, temperatures were observed, at 0.19 P.M., of 221; at 0.29 P.M., 230; at 1.15 P.M., 239; at 1.57 P.M., 248; and at 2.57 P.M., 240.5. As these temperatures far surpass that of boiling water, some amusing experiments were made by exposing eggs, fruit, meat, etc., in the same manner (December 21, 1837, *et seq.*), all of which, after a moderate length of exposure, were found perfectly cooked—the eggs being rendered hard and powdery to the centre; and on one occasion a very respectable stew of meat and vegetables was prepared, and eaten with no small relish by the entertained bystanders. I doubt not that by multiplying the enclosing vessels, constructing them of copper blackened inside, insulating them from contact with each other by charcoal supports, surrounding the exterior one with cotton, and burying it so surrounded in dry sand, a temperature approaching to ignition might readily be commanded without the use of lenses."

In the same connection should be remembered the suggestion, often made, that the sun's heat could be converted into mechanical force through the intervention of thermo-electricity. A thermo-electric battery, of proper construction, upon being placed in Herschel's box, for example, would surely be thrown into energetic action, and the power thus generated would be susceptible of direct application.

EFFECT OF SUNLIGHT ON WINDOW-GLASS.—It is a familiar observation that window-glass shows a tinge of color—purple, blue, green, or yellow—when looked at from outside against a white shade or shutter within. The very best qualities of glass, even the best French plate, although white when placed in the windows, often become colored after exposure to air and light for months or years. We find in a volume of the "Proceedings of the Boston Natural History Society," lately published, some observations by Mr. Thomas Gaffield, which add something to our knowledge of this obscure subject. Mr. Gaffield exposed some thirty specimens of plate, crown, and sheet glass, coming from various factories in England, France, Belgium, Germany, and the United States, to the full action of the sun during the month of July, in such a manner that the specimens were exposed to reflected light and heat as well as to that which fell directly upon them. The glass, which already had a decided green or blue tinge, though called colorless, was not affected; but all the white glass, and all the glass which was nearly white, whatever its precise hue, turned to a yellowish color. Very light-colored glass was, in some instances, perceptibly affected by even a single day's exposure. Mr. Gaffield exhibited ten pieces of French white plate glass, one of which showed the original colorless glass, while the others demonstrated the change of hue towards yellow, after an exposure respectively of one, two, and four days; one, two, and three weeks; one, two, and three months. The changes in the first four days were slight; but the last specimens were so yellow as to exhibit a very marked contrast with the original glass. That the color permeates the body of the glass, and is not confined to the surface, or produced by reflection therefrom, was proved by grinding off about one-

sixteenth of an inch from both surfaces and the four edges of one of the specimens, which, notwithstanding, after re-polishing still exhibited the same yellow color.

It is to be noticed that in these experiments only the light-colored glasses were perceptibly affected, but it is quite possible that a longer exposure, for years instead of months, would alter every color in some degree. Theories to account for these changes of color under the influence of the sun's rays are not lacking, but a large multiplication of experiments and a greater accumulation of similar facts are necessary before any satisfactory explanation of these curious phenomena can well be given.

NITRATE OF POTASH.—In the manufacture of saltpetre from the nitrate of soda of Peru, as effected with carbonate of potash in the usual way, several difficulties are encountered. It is by no means easy, for example, to get rid of the last traces of the carbonate of soda which is formed at the same time with the saltpetre, and which is apt to remain adhering to it. Hence the finished nitrate of potash which has been prepared in this way is rarely, if ever, perfectly pure. But by using caustic potash in place of the carbonate of potash, it is asserted that very satisfactory results can be obtained. For, since the soda, which is set free in this case, is very much more soluble in water than the saltpetre, the greater part of the latter can readily be separated by crystallization.

The details of the process, which is that of Dr. Graeber, are as follows: One part of carbonate of potash having been dissolved in twelve parts of water, the solution is boiled with the amount of lime necessary to convert it into caustic potash; the lye being then decanted, after repose, there is added to it an equivalent quantity of nitrate of soda (Chili saltpetre), and the whole is evaporated down to a strength of about 40° or 42° Baumé. On now cooling the liquor, the nitrate of potash will crystallize out.

WHITENING OF PAPER.—That some paper manufacturers are accustomed to increase the weight of their products by the introduction of pipe-clay, plaster of Paris, and other heavy colorless substances, is notorious, though the act is not usually spoken of in terms of commendation. But a technical chemist in Europe now proposes, without any reserve, to do away with the usual processes of bleaching with sulphurous acid or chlorine, and to whiten the paper simply by addition of white substances. He proposes, in short, to introduce by chemical means a quantity of sulphate of baryta (barytes) directly into the texture of the paper. This is effected by adding to the paper pulp solutions of alum and of chloride of barium, together with a quantity of slaked lime. By these means sulphate of baryta, together with a quantity of hydrate of alumina, is precipitated in and upon the fibres which, in the subsequent process of felting, are converted into paper. The sulphate of baryta, being of a brilliant white color, will, of course, tend to conceal the coloring matters of the original fibre. As the sulphate of baryta is very heavy, and as paper is sold by the pound, the method in question will, no doubt, have a fair trial.

EDUCATIONAL.

THE Legislature of the State of New York has just made provision for four new normal schools, and various towns and cities are getting ready to bid, as they would at an auction, for the privilege of receiving these projected institutions. There is something laughable in this contest of the towns, reminding us that seven cities of old were claimants for the honor of producing Homer. On the other hand, the readiness with which large places are willing to offer one or two hundred thousand dollars for the prize of a teacher's seminary is refreshing. It shows that the people believe in education. We wish that this popular interest in normal schools was shared by our thinking men, our scholars, and our statesmen; or rather, we wish that able men would take up and discuss with vigor the proper characteristics of a training school for teachers. Can the art of teaching be taught, like the art of music, or is teaching a gift? Will the scholars of a normal school learn best by observing good teachers, or by practising themselves on a class of children? If by the latter course, how will the children fare? Are teachers for all classes of children, the young and the advanced, to be trained in the same way, or is there an appropriate discipline for different grades of schools? Is teaching a knack, or is it a science? Have we not erred in this country by adopting too many of the features of the Prussian normal schools? These are only a few of the enquiries which must suggest themselves to all who study the workings of our existing seminaries for teachers.

—One of the best phases of modern philanthropy is seen in the case of destitute and neglected children—those who would become the outcast and dangerous classes of society if protection were not extended to them by the

law of the state and the law of Christian charity. Benevolent men in various parts of our country and abroad have been working on different plans and theories to promote the same end, the reformation of juvenile delinquents and the prevention of youthful crime. Twice in New York within a few years conventions have been held for the discussion of this subject in its manifold relations, and two pamphlets have been printed containing the result of these deliberations.

—A third convention will be held in Boston, on the 5th of June next, under the auspices of the national and local "Social Science Associations." The topics to be discussed are mainly those of the New York convention of 1859, namely: 1. The distinction between vagrancy and destitution, on the one hand, and crime on the other; 2. The comparative value of the family and congregate systems in reformatory institutions; 3. The work to be done by public as contrasted with private institutions, and the true principle of distributing these institutions in the community; 4. The true principles of legislation in respect of vagrant and criminal children; 5. The best system of education in reformatories—including manual, intellectual, moral, and religious education; 6. The best system of discipline, and how to train officers to administer such a system; 7. The length of time during which children should remain in reformatories, and the best method of providing for them when discharged.

—Our allusion to the number of educated young men who took part in the war has drawn out the following statement in respect to the graduates of the Wesleyan University at Middletown:

"The whole number of alumni and students that entered the United States military and naval service during the war was 134; of these, 68 were graduates. The number of alumni living is 724. The estimated number of those who are within the military age is 610. Of the classes that were connected with the college from 1860 to 1866, inclusive, about 30 percent. joined the army. The four classes which graduated during the war, 1861-64, sent 33 per cent. of their number into the service. Ten died in battle or from wounds, and eight from sickness contracted in the army."

From Trinity College, in Hartford, we learn that not less than fifty of their former pupils served in the recent war. Though this number is not large in itself, it compares well with the number of laymen who have been trained in the college. It is estimated that forty per cent. of the entire number of graduates between eighteen and forty years of age, engaged in secular pursuits in the Northern States, entered the national army.

—The city of Cleveland, if we may judge from a recent pamphlet, is deep in the discussion of the "High School" question. At any rate, some objections made against this member of the system of the public schools have drawn from the superintendent in that city a very clear statement of the principles on which the high school should be maintained. He argues that the high school is of great benefit to the lower schools, by inciting the ambition and industry of all young scholars; that it gives respectability and attractiveness to the public school system; that without its facilities hundreds of young men and women would fail to receive such a training as they need for useful stations in life; and finally that the high school furnishes a large number of good teachers for the other city schools. He also shows how it happens that, from absolute poverty and the necessity of entering upon lucrative occupations, many who begin fail to complete the high school course. The document in which these views are brought out is the Twenty-ninth Annual Report on the Cleveland schools. It will be found useful in the many places where this topic is now under discussion.

DEAN STANLEY'S JEWISH CHURCH.*

To appreciate and criticise properly the great work whose title we have placed at the head of this article demands more space than we can give to it. All we can do, therefore, is to point out its place in literature, its good fruits, and its defects. It yet wants another volume for its completion—the history from the Captivity to the formation of the Christian Church; but it is even complete as it is, since it contains the chief sections of interest in the history of Israel.

As to its place in literature, this work stands alone in the English language. Dean Milman's work is but an outline of Jewish history compared to it; but then in the history of the Jews the author's object is different. He presents the whole history of that people down to the present time, while Dean Stanley, even when his work is entirely completed, will not go beyond the time of Christ. So that the works do not at all conflict, the one being

so much more comprehensive in subject than the other, and therefore briefer in its analysis of the Jewish Church; and these are the only two works, outside Biblical criticism, of any authority on these subjects in the language. Nor is Dean Stanley's a full history. It is the history of the Jewish *Church*, not of the race, its language, or antiquities; it has an ecclesiastical tone and spirit, though it has even less of this than any other work we have ever read in this line of study. It is a history written freely; it has the spirit, fashion, style, air of any other great history, and though the treatment is in the form of lectures, they serve an important purpose in enabling the author to mass his materials at certain points with great effect. He has done for Jewish history what Mr. Grote has done for that of Greece. He has stripped off the unsecular bands which have withheld the facts of the sacred narrative from the common and free examination of scholars, and presented the facts of Divine dealing with mankind in their simple nakedness, with too much nakedness, too great a leaning to the uncertain results of recent criticism, we think, in his first volume—a freedom which is far less noticeable in the second. This gives you the point of view from which the author writes, and to a degree determines the place and value of the book. It has underrated the work in the eyes of some narrow theologians; it has exalted it in the view of others. We should judge that Dean Stanley himself (the notes at the close of the recent volume are in evidence) has come to more settled opinion since 1862. It is never safe in a great work to lean too much to contemporary criticism, though you may wisely follow its perfectly established methods; yet this is what to our great regret the dean very evidently did, through his great interest in the *Essay-and-Review* controversy, which has now gone to a blessed oblivion. The good results of that burst of new learning are manifest in this recent volume, the yeastiness is abundantly evident in the former; and yet, perhaps, not every one will discriminate between the two. Any one who has read carefully the dean's articles in the "*Edinburgh Review*" will be able to trace the changes which have come over his tone of thought. For ourselves, we believe one need fear nothing from the careful criticism whose true results Dean Stanley has embodied in his work; for there is a conservative element in Biblical criticism (and, indeed, in nearly every great department of thought) which tends always to correct its worst manifestations. We have mentioned this element here because it has much to do in the assigning of this history to its true place in literature. And its place is without doubt this: it is the only standard, popular, and authoritative history of the Jewish Church which we have or shall have for half a century. It is an attempt to apply the result of criticism to a popular statement and illustration of the Bible history. It is the attempt to do in prose for the Hebrew characters and life what the lamented Keble did in "*The Christian Year*" and "*Lyra Innocentium*"; and as the religious public pass through the change in the treatment and way of looking at sacred subjects which an intelligent observer can trace even in our current literature, can very broadly trace in the reception, warm and fervent, given to Keble and the writers in "*Lyra Apostolica*" (of whom Keble himself was one), we think Dean Stanley's labors will be even more highly estimated than they are now. He has successfully accomplished a great work, and one whose labor strikes you as much lighter than it really is; for the very familiarity of our minds with the subject-matter of his volumes makes us all the more exacting in our demands upon the author himself. To us, with all the helps which he has unquestionably obtained from others and in a sense made his own, there is a colossal labor implied in his compact and brilliantly learned pages.

An objection has been made to this work on the ground that it is not a philosophical history in the fashion of much which passes for history at the present day, that it is less a succession of speculations than a statement of facts. But this we have always considered a merit. The methods of arriving at truth are not given; the facts themselves are pointedly and brilliantly put. And then the narrative is filled in with much which is diligently gleaned from sources foreign to the Bible—Jewish and Moslem traditions—of course only authentic for purposes of illustration, but here invaluable. This makes the dean's pages living photographs. He is evidently an ardent admirer of Macaulay; but his brilliancy is not mere rhetoric: it is the result, just as with Macaulay, of a vast and ever-present wealth of learning, and, for ourselves, we would far rather read such a brilliant work than the languid pages of unimaginative historians, even if we cannot read long at a time. Now this brilliancy, this apt illustration from a mosaic of facts, is apt to lead one to undervalue the real depth of Dean Stanley's perception of the seminal truths of history; and yet we have always found in him a healthy philosophy, and his deductions are always clearly made. Looking through the twelve hundred pages of Jewish history which he has written, one can hardly find the great crisis or change, and the truth which was beneath it, not fully and adequately presented.

* "Lectures on the History of the Jewish Church. Part I. Abraham to Samuel. By Arthur Penrhyn Stanley, D.D., Dean of Westminster. Pp. xl., 512. Part II. Samuel to the Captivity. By the same. Pp. xxx., 656. Two volumes. "Svo." New York: Charles Scribner. 1866.

[May 29, 1866]

Part of his success is due to his first-class literary abilities. The men who do a real honor to literature, whose minds are deeply imbued with the literary spirit, are very few; and Dean Stanley is one of them. He shows this skill and excellence in the construction of his narrative, in the disposal of its light and shade, in his illustration of his subject from literature and life, in his frequent comprehensive connection of all great epochs in history, in the command of an apt and choice vocabulary, in the management of his very sentences, in the lighter and even the deeper imaginative coloring which gives to some of his descriptions the charm and power of poetry.

Then there is to be added the special fitness which comes from the peculiar turn which his studies have taken for many years. His "Sinai and Palestine" has long since become an authority in Biblical study, and his two visits among the very scenes of sacred story have prepared him to present with almost the fidelity of an eye-witness the great events which he describes. And some portions of his work, as the battles of Joshua and the Judges, the career of Elijah, the rise of the Hebrew Monarchy and its splendid culmination in the reign of Solomon, are among the finest specimens of vivid, clear, brilliant narrative that we have ever seen. Whoever has read the chapter on Samuel can never forget its pathos and tender beauty, and whenever the author comes to the great humanities of his history the tone of the narrative blends in indescribable sympathy with the event itself, and some of these scenes are so brilliantly painted that to the mind's eye they will ever seem living realities and moving forms. Is not this the true method of writing history? The author ever remembers that he is not only a priest but a man, and that the characters whom he paints were once clothed with flesh and blood. And besides, there are some chapters which are priceless in their popular value. These are, "The History of the Prophetical Order," "The Nature of the Prophetic Teaching," and "The Jewish Priesthood," to which may be added "The Psalter of David" and "The Wisdom of Solomon." We know not where else to find in the language what these contain, and every student in divinity as well as every general reader knows how wrapped in mystery these subjects have long been from the want of clear teaching. Here Dean Stanley has supplied a great need. He has not written entirely as a theologian, but he has supplied what even theologians do not always teach. There are, of course, many who will go to the original sources for their information on such topics; but there are no sequestered bands of priests in this country to cherish these studies, and the hard-working parish clergyman is only too grateful for such popular exhibitions of important topics, since if he has any learning on many subjects it must be entirely derived at second hand.

We think the completion of this work so far an ominous sign. The day is passing by when commentaries are to be so generally trusted as they have been. The "Dictionary of the Bible" contains the digested knowledge for a hundred commentaries, and no work is more frequently quoted in the Jewish Church; and the dean's work itself is to a large extent to be the substitute for commentaries. It is a continual illustration of the Bible. Its brilliancy does not lead one away from the Scriptures; but it presents such a fresh and living synopsis of their great points that the reader goes to them with greater interest than ever before, and just in this particular are such works as the present to supersede commentaries. There will always be a learned criticism answering most useful ends; but for the mass of intelligent readers such books as the "Jewish Church" are to be the chief introductory works to the Bible. One cannot but regret, therefore, in this change of study (and "Ecce Homo" is a witness of this change, so far as the New Testament goes) that Dean Stanley sometimes assumes an entirely negative position, so far as the theological bearings of his subject go. It is doubtful whether he was wise in leaving out so entirely what was theological. It has always seemed to us, though here we are chiefly concerned with the literary merits of this work, that in the Jewish history theology and history go together: and if we are right, the dean's silence, which is sometimes painful in the first volume, is the great defect of his work. If this work is to be used, as it probably will be, instead of a commentary (for we have none on the Old Testament in English that are of much value), this defect will be such as to interfere largely with the usefulness of one of the great works of the day. The author seems to have ignored this part of his subject through a fear of that excessive typicism which is the other extreme, and yet he has made many honest amends for it in his second volume, though he has not said all which Christian scholars will demand. This is of a piece with the unfortunate prejudice under which the whole work was written. Dean Stanley is probably learning, if we may so interpret his most recent course, that there is a catholicity, though we admire exceedingly his noble liberality of thought and his frank assertion of it, which loses sight of the truth.

We should like very much to enter more fully into the criticism of the "Jewish Church," since it both provokes it and will bear it; but there are numberless others who will do that effectually enough. Whoever will give it close study and use carefully the foot-notes, will bring very much to the elucidation of the Scriptures; and we are entirely safe in saying that no such portrayal of Jewish life and character can elsewhere be found. The literature of the subject has been exhausted. It is to be regretted that many of the references in the notes have not been adapted to the American editions of the books referred to, as the "Lectures on the Science of Language" and "Milman's History of the Jews," and some other works. It is a blunder which publishers ought not to make, and we do not know of a reprint of any good book in which it has not been made again and again. But the publisher deserves great credit for the superior style in which the work is presented to the public, and the ample apparatus, excepting this neglect in references, which makes the work useful and handy. The day has gone by when good readers wish good books in bad type and paper and binding in this country.

ALEA JACTA EST!

THE state of Europe throws my mind into the greatest perplexity. We are on the eve of a terrible crisis, similar to the Thirty Years' War or to the great Revolutionary war—of one of those convulsions the issue of which nobody can foresee. It seems as if all the nations of Europe were on the point of being thrown into a furnace, and nobody can predict what alloy will be found when the melted metals are left to cool. Millions of men are already under arms, and in a few days will probably confront each other on the battle-field. The pretext is a miserable dispute about the miserable duchies of Schleswig-Holstein. The real cause, which is visible enough to a good observer, is the singular alliance which has been formed between good and evil passions, between egotistical and national aspirations. Italy wishes to tear Venetia from the hands of Austria; Bismarck, to assure the triumph of his ambition and of Prussian hegemony; the French Emperor, to silence the liberal opposition and to consolidate by new victories his tottering dynasty. From these various and almost contradictory motives these three powers have entered into a conspiracy against the peace of Europe. Bismarck has spoken first, Italy has armed after him, and now Napoleon III. has thrown off the mask at Auxerre in one of his fatidic speeches. Turning his back upon Paris and on his own parliament, which a few days before had unanimously cheered a pacific speech pronounced by M. Thiers, Napoleon III. shows himself to the peasants, tells them that among them only he can breathe freely, and that with them he expects to destroy the remnants of the treaties of 1815. But who, before history and before the French people, must bear the responsibility of these treaties but his illustrious ancestor? And besides, how can a Prusso-French alliance be reconciled with an attack upon these treaties? This remains to be seen.

Three points in these famous treaties, which every Frenchman detests, were exclusively directed against France; a bastion was placed on the north, if I may say so, which was the kingdom of the Netherlands; a bastion on the south, the kingdom of Sardinia, under the guard of Austria; and between them a long line of attack was extended from Cologne to Sarrebrück. The liberal revolution of 1830 cut in two the kingdoms of the Netherlands, and placed between us and the remains of it the neutral and friendly kingdom of Belgium; the Italian war has freed our frontier of the Alps; there remains then only this point of the Prussian sword which enters into our very heart. Does the Emperor hope that Bismarck will voluntarily withdraw it, and that, satisfied with seeing an administrative and military despotism established all over Europe, the Prussian army and bureaucracy will gladly fall back on the right bank of the Rhine? I have my doubts on this point. Will the French Emperor be satisfied with Landau, Sarrelouis, and what is called the frontier of 1814? It would be a very trifling price for the blood which must soon be shed, and the most threatening and dangerous part of the treaties of 1815 would still be maintained, and would even be aggravated by the increase of the Prussian power. Has the Emperor no settled design? and does he only hope to profit by circumstances? We shall see.

The war is, I hear, very unpopular in Germany, and I do n't much wonder; for, in point of territory, the Germans have nothing to gain, and unity in the shape of military and bureaucratic despotism cannot be very acceptable to the German patriots. Italy may gain Venetia by this war, and I would rejoice if she did; but I cannot help thinking that this conquest will come too early or too late: too late, for if it had been made in 1859, according to the first promises of Napoleon III., Italy would have escaped many

difficulties and not have found herself nearly bankrupt; too early, for in the interest of her own independence it would be better for her if she could seize Venetia without the help of two despotic powers, or obtain it from Austria by pacific means, which sooner or later must have happened.

Nobody can have more sympathy than I have for the German people; in my work on the United States I have tried to do full justice to the conduct of the Germans during your last war, and to the growing importance of the German element in the fabric of American civilization. I have lived long and travelled much in Germany; I admire the courage, the genius, the character of the German people; I am not of those who would wish to see Germany always divided and weak. I also have sometimes remodelled in my dreams the map of Europe, and seen a new Germany, united, happy, and prosperous, under such a constitution as suits her genius, but not under one or two military despotisms. I can understand that the transformation of the German Federation is worth many sacrifices. But I cannot understand why the Germans should rush into what I can only call a civil war not to defend a vital principle, not to establish their political independence, but merely in order that the whole of Europe should be divided into a few strong military governments, always in arms and ready to throw themselves on each other. Is this the ideal for which millions of men are preparing now to die?

A. LAUGEL.

May 11, 1866.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, May 11, 1866.

THE magnificent summer weather of ten days ago has been succeeded by a most unwelcome return of winter; everything hilly in France is covered with snow, and from the north of England and Scotland come lamentable accounts of young lambs killed on the wolds by sudden frosts, communication impeded by heavy snow-storms, and all hope of pears, apples, and plums cut off for this season. In Scotland, especially, the weather is so cold that even the famous Bushman, brought home by the late world renowned lion-hunter, Richard Gordon Cumming, to his native Inverness, would probably not object so strenuously as usual to the European clothes his master used to take so much pains to teach him to wear. The great hunter was a scion of an old family of wealth and standing, his father being a baronet, and the family seat, near Inverness, one of the finest of that part of the country. On his last return from South Africa, he brought with him a Bushman whom he had caught in one of his trips, a frightfully ugly little creature, to whom he had taken a great fancy, and whom he tried hard to draw out of his natural state of more than monkey-like obtuseness. The Bushman, on his side, adored his master to the fullest extent of his very limited faculties; followed him about with the fidelity of a dog, and did everything he bade him do, even to wearing the smart costume which Mr. Cumming had had made for him, though always manifesting his dislike for these troublesome appendages by uttering a series of plaintive, semi-articulate howls whenever he put them on. Though docile to his master, it was known that the little yellow savage, with his small eyes and lank hair, had sharp teeth and could bite like a mastiff; and he was, therefore, an object of no little terror to all the household, including Lady Cumming herself, though the poor Bushman showed almost as much fondness for her as for her son. On one occasion the latter, having left home for the day, after superintending, as usual, the toilette of his *protégé*, the little Bushman, comprehending, apparently, that he would be his own master for several hours, went up to his room, took off every bit of the obnoxious apparel, hung a small mat upon his back, and, thus lightly and airily attired, made his appearance in the drawing-room, where he at once sat down at Lady Cumming's feet, a position from which no amount of persuasion could dislodge him. No one dared to use force with the little savage, and all Lady Cumming's visitors had thus the unexpected opportunity of learning the nature and extent of a Bushman's views on the subject of clothing.

This being the great month for the administration of the rite of confirmation, the streets have been filled with young girls in dresses, caps, and veils of book-muslin, and boys with shoulder-knots of white satin ribbon, on their way to and from the various churches. At certain hours the interior of these buildings has presented a very pretty appearance, the aisles being completely filled by these children—the girls on one side, the boys on the other—all singing the psalms appropriate to the solemnity. The matter-of-fact light in which the ceremonies of their Church are regarded by Catholic populations is fully evident in their manner of referring, in after life, to the period of their individual ecclesiastical experiences. They constantly say, "About the time when I was to take my first communion," or "Soon after I took my first communion," to designate the epoch at which something or other occurred in their secular life. The children are all duly

catechised, shiven, and exhorted, before being admitted to the rite; but comparatively few seem to see anything more important in the matter than the display of their little persons in the eyes of the congregation, decked out in the pretty book muslin dresses and the white shoulder knots.

The congregation of the French Protestant church here, presided over by M. Martin-Paschoud, has been "in hot water" for some time past, the reverend gentleman preaching doctrines which, though regarded as satisfactory by the great majority of the members of that body, are considered as heterodox by a small but very energetic minority, at whose head is the ex-prime minister M. Guizot. As there is no regular "profession of faith" in the French Protestant Church, there is no legal standard of orthodoxy; and accordingly the two parties alike appeal to the Minister of Public Worship, one party demanding that M. Martin-Paschoud shall be dismissed from his post, the other protesting against this demand and declaring their wish to retain him. The affair has been contested two or three times before the proper tribunals, the verdict going sometimes one way, sometimes the other; and a very strong memorial in favor of the incumbent, and signed by above six hundred members, having recently been sent in to the minister, that somewhat bitter partisan, M. Guizot, has solicited and obtained an audience of the Emperor for the express purpose of setting forth the views of the dissidents and enlisting the sympathy of his Majesty against the aged incumbent whom they wish to oust from his post, a proceeding which has roused the indignation of the majority to a very high pitch. Things having arrived at this amiable point, M. Martin-Paschoud took, last Sunday, for his text the twenty-fourth chapter of the Acts of the Apostles, from the first to the end of the sixteenth verse. The passage thus brought before the congregation, relating how "a certain orator named Tertullus informed the governor against Paul," and how, though hating the alien functionary, as did the rest of the Jews, the great orator yet stooped to flatter Felix, in order to influence him against Paul as "a pestilent fellow, a mover of sedition and the ringleader of a sect," is so marvellously applicable in all the details of its narrative to the facts of the pending quarrel—for M. Guizot detests the Emperor quite as heartily as the Jews detested the Roman—and the justification of himself made by Paul in the concluding verses resumes so exactly that which M. Martin-Paschoud has made in his own behalf, that the reading of his text created no little excitement throughout the audience. The majority were in raptures and looked as though they would gladly have indulged in a round of applause at each "palpable hit" of the narrative; while the dissidents, furious at an applicability whose existence they would be so unwilling to admit, did their utmost, by trying to look innocent and unconcerned, to avoid any appearance of recognizing the picture of their own tactics reflected with such curious fidelity in the ancient mirror held up to their view. How far this very clever "turning of the tables" upon his adversaries may tend to appease the dissensions of the congregation in question is, of course, another affair.

The threatening aspect of the political world is naturally pre-occupying the public mind to the exclusion of most other topics; and the general reprobation of the crooked policy that has brought us to the verge of a new war has found vent in the coining of a new verb, now in great vogue in all the card-playing and billiard saloons of the capital, in which, when a player is found out in cheating at play, he is at once accused of "Bismarcking," and turned out accordingly. But the imminence of a war that threatens to convulse all Europe does not cause the Emperor to slacken in his energetic preparations for the great show of next year. The Commissioner-General goes to the Tuilleries every day, and lays a minute account of the works and the measures adopted before his Majesty. The Emperor has just decided to add an exhibition of flowers and fruit to the other "attractions," and will contribute largely towards the expenses of the exhibitors. He has also determined to add the sum of 200,000 francs to the amount to be adjudged in the form of prizes: one prize of 100,000 francs to be given to the workshop or factory in which the solidarity of interests between capital and labor, master and workman, shall be most completely realized, and ten other prizes of 10,000 francs each, all to be awarded without distinction of nationality. In order that those who obtain the various awards, so generously provided, may profit by the distinctions thus conferred upon them during the remainder of the duration of the Exhibition, the distribution of rewards is to take place on the 1st of July, 1867, on which occasion a fête is to be given whose magnificence may be inferred from the fact that a sum of 800,000 francs has been set apart for this item! Rooms will be prepared in the old Palace of Industry for the various foreign commissions until the opening of the new palace in the Champ de Mars, after which those rooms will be closed, and the various commissions will be installed in the new structure, where a "Universal Club" is to be established for the convenience of all exhibitors and visitors, who may be disposed to join it.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.

FIDELITY TO PARTY.

No one can be more averse to the common subserviency of Americans to party leaders and party spirit than we are. It is to us a melancholy spectacle to see intelligent and honorable men wink at corruption merely because it seems to benefit their party, or sustain measures which they know to be disastrous to their country simply because their party has adopted them. It is to be desired that the American people may grow more and more independent of party, looking not to names and standards, but to principles and the fitness of men to carry them out.

But, on the other hand, it must be borne in mind that parties are essential instruments in the conduct of public affairs, and that useful instruments must be treated with consideration. An engineer would be mad who should prefer the safety of his engine to that of his passengers. But no engineer could secure the safety of passengers without paying close attention to the working of his engine, nor without conforming his action to the nature and necessities of his machinery. Party organizations are the machines by means of which great public ends are to be achieved. And while the end should never be sacrificed to the means, yet a man who, in his haste to attain his end, destroys the machinery properly used for that purpose, is most likely to fail of success even in the particular effort to which he devotes himself, and is certain to destroy his power for further usefulness.

Men are generally raised to public positions by the aid of organized parties. They are elected by the votes of men having certain definite opinions, in the expectation that they will carry out those opinions. If, upon attaining power, it should become common for officials to change their minds and to affiliate with the party which opposed their election, it is plain that all political confidence will be destroyed, and that an election will degenerate into a mere lottery. No one could tell for what policy he was voting, since the utmost labor spent on behalf of a candidate advocating one set of principles before election might prove to have been used practically for the support of principles directly adverse. Conversions in office, even to a better cause, are, therefore, an evil of such magnitude as to be intolerable under a democratic form of government. Whatever good may be done by such converts in special cases is more than counterbalanced by the unsettling of public confidence in the good faith and honor of aspirants to office.

But it may be asked whether a man in public life is bound to shut his ears to reason and his eyes to facts. By no means. Nor is a change of views on many points discreditable to a public man. A village politician, when first chosen to Congress, comes into contact with many men and many things whose existence he had never before taken into account. Many supposed facts upon which his political theories were based vanish in the light of superior knowledge. He ought to be open to conviction. He ought to modify old prejudices faster even than if he were in private life. But he ought not to misrepresent his constituents. He ought not to betray his trust. He has no moral right, when power has been conferred upon him in the faith that it would be used in a particular manner, to use it in an opposite direction. The course proper for an honorable man in such a case is clear: he should resign and seek to persuade his constituents to join him in his change of opinion.

Thus it might be a commendable thing for a Roman Catholic archbishop to become a Protestant, but we trust that very few Protestants would thank him for turning out the priests from all the Catholic churches in his diocese and transforming them into Protestant churches, by virtue of his power as sole trustee. So Bishop Colenso's renunciation of the Pentateuch may be creditable to his candor; but it cannot be denied that his renunciation of the bishopric, which he never could have had if his views had been known before his consecration, would have been more creditable to his sense of honor. We should be glad to see the member from "old Berks" converted to the doctrine of universal suffrage, but should be

sorry to have him mar his conversion by retaining his seat after it without the consent of his district.

This is a doctrine essentially different from the well known, but very doubtful, theory of the binding force of instructions. It is one thing to hold, as do the advocates of the latter doctrine, that the legislator must follow all the caprices and changes of his constituents, and quite another to hold him bound to adhere to the policy by pledging himself to which he secured his election. The difference is that which divides democracy, in its broadest sense, from republicanism; but even republicanism cannot exist without a general adherence to the principle we have here advocated.

In 1846 the influence of Sir Robert Peel and the arguments of Mr. Cobden induced a large number of members of the British Parliament, who had been elected as protectionists, to support the repeal of protective duties on corn. Wherever their constituents manifested dissatisfaction, these members resigned and submitted themselves to a fresh vote. This was manly and honorable. So, within a few weeks past, M. de Bussiere, of Strasburg (department of Bas-Rhin), having been elected with an understanding that he would unite in requesting an extension of liberty from the Government, and deeming it impolitic to do so, resigned his seat, and was re-elected. Whatever may be suspected or said of the means used to secure this result, it is at least certain that the resignation of M. de Bussiere was a creditable action. Politicians in America should be taught to follow such examples.

The common excuse for betraying the confidence of electors is, that the particular measure or the particular policy for opposing which complaint is made was not broached at the election, and that the representative is therefore free to decide upon it at his own discretion. Where the question is absolutely new, this may generally be claimed with justice. Thus, for example, a member of Congress elected in 1856 could not have been pledged to any precise course with regard to the admission of Kansas under the Lecompton constitution, which was framed in 1857. But members were generally pledged to some general policy in reference to Kansas, which either justified or condemned that constitution. So members elected in 1860 were not pledged to any course in regard to war, which was not then anticipated by the North. This, however, would have been a poor excuse for any Republican who should have voted against the necessary appropriation bills.

The implied pledge under which, as it seems to us, every legislator is elected, is that he will carry out the general aims of his party in respect to matters upon which its policy is not fully developed, and that he will co-operate with that party in shaping a policy in respect to new questions, not dictating to it, but advising with it.

Applying these principles to the present state of affairs, we think it perfectly clear, *first*, that the great and victorious Republican-Union party of 1864 did not then adopt any fixed scheme of reconstruction for the sufficient reason that it had not then the power to reconstruct; and *second*, that the party fully contemplated the work of reconstruction as one that would eventually fall to its lot to accomplish, and one upon the mode of which it would agree when the proper time came. No one would have been nominated by that party who had expressed a determination to carry on this work upon a plan of his own, regardless of the wishes or advice of the party. Mr. Lincoln was the very embodiment of the idea that no plan should be fixed upon until the time came for its execution; and it was one of his favorite sayings, that the party which had been able to agree upon the means of carrying on the war would be able to agree upon the means of terminating it.

With this understanding all who now hold power through the votes of the Union party were elected. It is, therefore, a breach of faith for any of them to attempt to force through schemes to which the bulk of that party are opposed. Conceding that the party entertains wrong views upon the subject, yet the evil of an erroneous policy is not so great as the evil of a line of conduct which breaks down all confidence between men in political life, which makes representation a mockery and the ballot a snare.

We cannot, therefore, join in commanding those high officials who make a virtue of having sunk party ties in assuming posts of public duty. They might as well boast of having sacrificed their honor, abandoned truth, and destroyed conscience in the service of their country. The best service is too dear at such a price. Undoubtedly there are

occasions in which a statesman may render an important service to his country by violating his conscience. But the service is temporary, and the precedent one of far-reaching injury. Statesmen are selected by a free people to serve them by honorable means. And those who, in their impatience, are not content to serve the people in the way that the people have chosen, had far better seek a land of despotism where some modern Cæsar imposes benefits upon his subjects against their will.

SPENDTHRIFTS AND PRICES.

We ascribed, in a recent number of *THE NATION*, the general and rapid rise in prices which has taken place during the last twenty years to the extraordinary additions made by California, Australia, and other gold-bearing regions to the quantity of the precious metals in circulation. That this has been the main cause of the greatly increased cost of living which is now observable in every civilized country there can be no sort of question. But there has been another agency at work of which political economists have taken no notice, but which we think may be safely said to have borne a large part in raising the prices we will not say of all commodities—nothing but an increase in the volume of the circulating medium can do this—but of a number of commodities on which the inhabitants of towns at least are largely dependent for their comfort. We mean the reckless and lavish habits of the immense body of persons whom the industrial and commercial activity of the last thirty years has made, if not suddenly, rapidly rich. This class is perhaps larger in the United States than in any other country, but it is also very large in England and in France, and is becoming very large in Germany.

To explain in what way its existence affects prices, we must remember that down to the beginning of this century the old aristocracy—that is, persons with fixed or declining incomes which they had inherited from their fathers—were almost the only rich men in every community. But what with entails and provisions for daughters and younger sons, and charges of all kinds, inseparable from what is called “position,” the aristocracy in all countries has long been a needy class. The plate and diamonds and other fine things owned by the proudest houses in Europe have, in nine cases out of ten, been handed down by some extravagant progenitor of the seventeenth or eighteenth century. Except in the few cases where estates have risen greatly in value, owing to the discovery of mines on them or the growth of cities in their neighborhood, there have really, for a century or more, been very few aristocrats in the world in a position to indulge in lavish expenditure. They have generally been obliged to regulate their expenses very strictly, to confine each item very rigidly within certain limits—to live in fact by rule, and often to deny themselves everything not absolutely essential to the maintenance of their “social position.” Any aristocracy which refused to do so, such as the Irish and Prussian, has disappeared, or been reduced to poverty and insignificance. Out of this necessity there grew up, of course, habits of carefulness, of prudence, and a strong dislike of display. We are satisfied that the quietness which aristocracies now affect in dress, equipages, and furniture, though largely due to the growth of good taste, may be partly ascribed to the increasing strain on incomes. It must not be forgotten, too, that men accustomed to the possession of wealth from their youth up, are generally much more measured in their enjoyment of it, and spend it much more skilfully, than those who fall into it after their character and habits have been formed. If, therefore, the old feudal aristocracies had continued to be the only rich class, although prices would undoubtedly have risen as the quantity of gold increased, the disturbance in them would have been much less violent than it has been and is.

The feudal aristocracy has not remained the only rich class. It is, in fact, now comparatively poor. There has grown up beside it a commercial class whose aggregate wealth is enormous, and in which fortunes of which dukes only dream are becoming quite common, and which, not being burdened with the obligation, real or supposed, of handing a family “down the ages” in splendor, is now enjoying its money with all its might. There is to be found in it a very large

amount of taste and culture, and, consequently, it has given a wonderful stimulus to art and literature. There is to be found in it, too, a very large amount of Christian zeal and of Christian charity, and it is, consequently, founding benevolent institutions and setting on foot enterprises for the instruction or elevation of the human race on a scale and with a munificence before unheard of. The public spirit of great merchants is, of course, nothing new, and is not peculiar to our time; but in our time there are one thousand great merchants for the one that any preceding age could boast.

But there is also in this class, in every country, a large body of persons to whom money is simply or mainly a means of personal enjoyment, and having had no experience in spending it, and having inherited no principles or rules of spending it, and being bound by no traditions about it, they rush into the markets of the world in the wildest indifference as to the value of things. What they want they buy, cost what it may, and they take a certain pride in paying lavishly for it. Nothing can be learnt from their dealings as to the value of things, because they take no pains whatever, either by chaffering or holding off, to bring sellers down to the real price. To servants they give any wages they choose to ask, and pay for everything that ministers directly to personal enjoyment—carriages, horses, clothes, houses, furniture, jewelry, food—the highest price that dealers venture to put on them. The waste wrought by this class is frightful, in sinking large sums in things essentially worthless and generally ugly; and the influence of their example on servants, on the young, and on the poor is, of course, very pernicious.

It is not with their moral influence, however, that we concern ourselves here, but their economical influence; and this, we think, is very marked. They of course all live in great cities, and the markets of great cities, owing to the railroads, now fix the prices almost over the entire country. One hundred miles from New York, or Paris, or London one can hardly get anything for less than it will bring in the city, and what it will bring in the city is what the tribe of people engaged in the enjoyment of newly-acquired fortunes are willing to pay for it. The wages of servants, for instance, is really now determined by this to a degree of which most people are not aware. There are very few great cities where servants are receiving the political economist's market price. What they get is not what their labor is worth in the existing state of the demand and supply, but what John, or Thomas, or Bridget had the impudence to ask Mr. Corner, of the Stock Exchange, or Mr. Putemthrough, of the Great Gammon and Spinach Company, and which he at once gave, partly through indifference about money and partly through pride in spending it lavishly. The same thing may be said of horses and of plate and jewelry, of houses, of hotel and restaurant prices, and even of land in desirable situations. In fact, we are witnessing, on a larger scale and clothed with somewhat greater refinement, the class of phenomena so common at “the diggings,” where miners who happen to be “flush” pay a small fortune for a drink or a game of billiards.

The disturbance which this lavishness is causing in the social arrangements of the great cities is such that in nearly all of them the middle classes are being driven out or forced into a plainer style of living. And we do not see much prospect of any change for the better until the resources of all the new countries are much more nearly exhausted than they are now, a period still very remote, as it may be said that it is only since the invention of steam locomotion that those of this continent and of Australia have begun to be worked. Africa and South America, both regions of incalculable wealth, are still untouched. What the effect on modern society of the application of Northern capital and energy to them will be, it is impossible to conjecture. But we may safely look, for a century to come, for a constant upheaval to the surface of the lower strata of society, and for the possession of large fortunes by persons untrained in the use of them. The spread of education and of taste will doubtless gradually do much to correct the evils which at present flow from this state of things, and it may be that we are just now at the lowest point. But there can be no question that the manners of a portion of the “new men” of our time do constitute an economical agency of some importance.

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PROTECTION TO NATURALIZED CITIZENS.

A QUESTION of international policy is now pending between the United States on the one part and most of the European powers on the other, which has not received from our Government the attention that it merits. It is the long vexed question of the status of naturalized citizens of the United States, or of the amount and kind of protection that they ought to enjoy in case they return temporarily to the place of their birth. It has even been made doubtful, by many occurrences, whether these citizens were recognized as entitled to any effectual protection whatever, when embarrassed or arrested by the Government to which they formerly owed allegiance. It is a cherished maxim of the English law that "once a subject, always a subject," and the codes of the Continent, if less emphatically announcing this doctrine, no less strenuously maintain it in practice; and it is the entire absence of any similar one in America that occasions the difficulty alluded to.

The circumstances are these: In Prussia, for instance, there is a law which holds every able-bodied youth, from the son of the king down to the son of the humblest peasant that hoes his cabbages on the banks of the Spree, from seventeen upwards, subject to be drawn in the military lottery for service in the army. After a term of actual service in the ranks or elsewhere, these conscripts are transferred to the rolls of the Landwehr, or reserve militia, but are still liable to be called upon in an emergency to take the field, and, in fact, in the present war excitement have been put for a time under drill. It is easy to see that this includes the great body of the young men of the country—the class that is most anxious to emigrate, and whose presence in the United States is most desirable. Every emigrant under the age of seventeen, though not yet fully a citizen of Prussia, is held to be such when he attains the proper age, in whatever foreign land he may have taken up his residence; and for a soldier who still has service to perform in the army or in the Landwehr to emigrate to America is, of course, nothing less than desertion. What do we see, then? When the emigrant, who has been years away from his parents and friends, after accumulating wealth in the New World, returns to spend a few months among them, he is liable to be arrested and held to service for the remainder of the term which he left incomplete. More than that, there often awaits him a judgment for the accumulated commutation of years, sometimes even to the amount of one hundred dollars, and it is only by discharging this debt that the citizen is free to return to America. That this evil is one of serious proportions is shown by the fact that between the years 1857 and 1861 over two hundred naturalized citizens of the United States were in the Prussian army against their will. There are at present not less than half a dozen who are known to be in the same condition. Others have been released through the efforts of our indefatigable minister, Mr. Wright, but only by the courtesy of the Prussian Government, which acknowledges no obligation to grant the release prayed for.

What has rendered this forced detention of American citizens in some instances more discreditable to our Government, is the fact that some of the victims had performed faithful service in the Union army throughout the war. After three or four years of arduous campaigning, in which they had almost altogether lost sight of their European relatives, through the irregularities of mails, they had returned to Prussia with their savings so honorably earned, for the purpose of taking back with them their parents, and, on arrival, were arrested as deserters. One poor fellow, who had won a cross in the Army of the Cumberland, in his simplicity supposed that in the Old World it would entitle him to high distinction, wore it in the streets of Berlin and among the wondering friends of his youth at his native place, was arrested as a deserter, and only succeeded in getting off after an outlay of over \$150. We have heard of an intelligent and wealthy German from Chicago, who went out to the same country in the hope of being able to visit his parents, who reside a few miles from the capital, undisturbed. He was obliged to drive to their residence at eight o'clock in the evening and return the next morning at daylight, and did not venture to repeat the act on learning that the officers were informed of his presence and were actively on the lookout. American-Germans feel this humiliation painfully; our minister feels it; native Americans, when informed of the fact, feel it likewise.

This state of affairs has not grown out of, nor is it a necessary indication of, weakness in our Government, but is the result partly of indifference and partly of sheer remoteness. When an Englishman is arrested on the Continent or seriously impeded in his movements, a burly protest arrives at once from London, and the affair is not dropped until that citizen is released; the Atlantic does not intervene, and, besides, there are few cities on the Continent that do not retain a recollection of the presence at some time or other of the red-coats; but no one ever saw an American soldier, and the thunder of our columbiads grows faint before it travels 3,500 miles. It is undeniable, however, that not all has been done that might have been done to secure protection abroad to naturalized American citizens. As far as those are concerned who have left their country while actually in its army, we cannot undertake to intervene, since they are deserters and must abide their chances; but in relation to all others there should be a treaty which will afford them immunity against arrest. The details of such a treaty are now under advisement between Mr. Wright and Count Bismarck, and there is a strong probability that it will be perfected and established. Several months ago Mr. Wright wrote to Mr. Seward for authority to arrange such a treaty, and received a reply to the effect that the rights of American citizens ought to be already sufficiently secured by international law, and that a treaty would be superfluous. Upon a full presentation of the facts, however, Mr. Wright received all necessary authority, and has already made good progress in his negotiations. Count Bismarck first proposed that all who left Prussia before the age of seventeen, and all above that age who had been in the United States ten years, should be exempt from molestation on returning here. This was about three months ago, but it was not accepted by Mr. Wright. Within a few weeks the premier has made a second offer proposing to exempt all who have been seven years in America. With that the affair rests for the present.

It cannot be doubted that such a treaty, or any treaty that would make the American passport as potent for a naturalized as for a native citizen, which it now is not, would greatly stimulate emigration to this country. It is the sanguine letters from America and the wonderful stories they contain that keep the farmers of Germany in a ferment and crowd the decks of the emigrant ships. But above all does the presence of returned friends, who become the centres of wondering groups, promote this result, and vastly more of them would return if they were assured that they could do so with perfect safety. The influence of their simple eloquence is far more effectual than that of all commissioners of emigration and printed circulars combined. Before the evidence of a returned brother or son who can afford to wear a gold watch and drink several pints of beer every day in the week, instead of only half-a-pint on Sunday afternoon, all incredulity vanishes at once. Then, again, many young persons are deterred from leaving for America by the knowledge that if, at some future day, they shall return to take their parents with them, it will be at the hazard of much inconvenience and, possibly, of months of unwilling service in the army. In short, every consideration, as well of interest as of justice and national honor, urges our Government to the speedy arrangement of a proper treaty, not only with Prussia, but also with all those nations that supply us with emigrants and still claim their allegiance.

"OLD LAMPS FOR NEW."

Oh soul! wert thou a poor maid-servant, weak
And foolish, and unknowing how the walls
Of shining stones, and silver, and fine gold,
Which made our dwelling glorious, our life
Assured, were built, that thou must spring at call
Of our most deadly foe, lured by the sound
And glitter of his hollow brass, and give
Into his treacherous hands our all!
And now,
For thee and me remaineth nothing more
But cold and hunger and the desert!
Soul,
Rise up and follow him, and tarry not,
Nor dare to call thy life thine own, until
Thou hast waylaid and slain him sitting at his feast,
And laid our talisman once more upon my breast!

THE APOSTLE BLOT.

LET us rejoice. A new dispensation is vouchsafed unto us. An apostle has come over unto our Macedonia to help us, and his name is Blot. He preaches the long-neglected Gospel of the Body, and the people receive him gladly. He counts among his disciples multitudes of honorable women, and of men not a few. He is not persecuted from city to city—contrariwise, he is entreated to visit them and impart unto them his doctrine. The only fires that are kindled for him are those which he teaches how to be the most friendly servants to man. Instead of having stones showered upon his head, his pockets are filled with rocks. And yet his beneficent mission is a reproach unto us, for it argues that we are wanting in one of the chief elements of civilization. He comes to deliver us from the bondage of barbarism and to teach us a more excellent way. He comes to prove to us that when God has sent us good meat in such abundance there is no need of getting our cooks from the devil. We rejoice to know that his ministrations were waited upon by the very flower of upper-tendom and Fifth Avenue. It is a sign of grace for which we thank God and take courage. It is an augury of a much-needed and long-waited-for reform which we trust may soon be accomplished, and good cooking be the rule of our lives instead of the exception. This philanthropist is now fulfilling his errand of mercy in Boston, the solid women (we speak only of their financial, and not of their personal, weight) of which city throng in crowds to learn of him. We hope that he will continue to extend his benevolent labors, and establish a culinary church universal which shall be known of all men for its good work.

We may seem to speak lightly, but we are terribly in earnest. This matter of cookery reaches farther than the body to which it seems at first to belong. It is closely connected with the temper of the mind as well as the health of the body. The kitchen is the laboratory in which the materials are chemically prepared out of which we are renewing ourselves daily in the texture of our bodies, and whereby, if physiologists do not lie, we make ourselves over again afresh every seven years. Now there can be no two opinions on the point that it is of vital importance that these chemical experiments should be well performed. For such an experiment every act of cookery is, and every failure is more or less vitally damaging to us. There can be no question of the close connection between the mind and the body. The body may be "a homely nurse," since Wordsworth says so, but the temper, disposition, and happiness of the mind committed to its charge greatly depend on its conditions. Most of the ill-temper, peevishness, and bad domestic manners which make up so large a part of household misery are but the fumes arising from an ill-regulated kitchen. So are the greatest part of the diseases that shorten life and make it bitter while it lasts. Health and disease, cheerfulness and melancholy, longevity and caducity are all issues of life or death which proceed from the stewpan and the spit. Now it is not reasonable to expect that these delicate experiments should be fitly conducted by wild Irish girls, whose bare feet are hardly extracted from their native bogs, however ready they may be to undertake them. These experiments, to be rightly successful, require the greatest accuracy of sight, taste, smell, and judgment. It is as absurd to expect even that high degree of skill which is called "plain cooking" from such an untrained peasant as the successful manipulation of retorts, crucibles, and blow-pipes by an English chaw-bacon.

Now we hold that a science so nearly touching the interests of the soul as well as of the body, is one eminently worthy of the study of our American matrons and maidens. And it is an encouraging symptom that so many of them have not been disobedient to the call of the excellent Blot. If the Homeric princesses were not above the homeliest domestic cares—if Penelope defended herself with her loom against her intrusive suitors, and the Princess Nausicaa did not disdain to take part in the family washing-day, surely our queens and princesses—the sovereigns of the sovereign people—need regard it as no derogation from their royal dignity to interest themselves in an art which is but the expression and embodiment of one of the most exalted and elegant of sciences—of chemistry applied to the uses of life. We do not demand or desire that they shall all perform in their own most proper persons the chemical experiments of which their kitchens are the laboratories. But it is well becoming the loftiest ladies in the land to understand the principles and the processes of this most subtle alchemy, were it but for the protection that such knowledge affords against the tyranny of the ruler of the roast. And it is but a very small proportion of American women who are entirely exempted from the necessity of the personal superintendence, if they are from that of the entire responsibility, of preparing meat in due season for their families. And a great responsibility it is, for the connection between good living and living well is of the closest nature. It may not be true in all cases, as a French wit affirms, that happiness consists in having a good stomach and a bad heart, but the two organs

are in close proximity to each other, and act reciprocally the one on the other. And if a bad digestion does not always make the heart bad, it very often produces a very excellent imitation of it. The late eccentric Lord Dudley showed a nice appreciation of the affinity between religion and alimentation, when he exclaimed, on hearing of the death of an eminent bishop: "He was a good man, an excellent man! He had the best melted butter in all London!"

When the virtues of our hearts are thus indissolubly connected with the dishes on our tables, it is surely a mistake, to call it by no harder name, that so little regard should be paid in building our finest houses to the size, light-someness, airiness, and general convenience of the kitchens. It is a part of the too common vice of our people to regard show rather than substance. It seems as if our builders think any dark, confined, unsavory den good enough for the due performance of the functions of the most important minister of the household. The sanctuary in which the priestess performs the rites the end of which is to edify the living temples in which we dwell while on earth, and on which so much of the health of the indwelling soul depends, should be in every particular of light and air and all appointments of convenience suitable to the dignity of her great office. When the cook is duly cared for and her office reverenced as it deserves to be, and the light of the higher intelligences of the household shed on her labors from time to time to raise them to a higher plane of art, we shall then have meat set before us worthy to have grace said before and after it. For we have heard blessings, and long ones, too, implored over food which could not be granted excepting through a special miracle. The true way of showing gratitude to the giver of all good gifts is to use his bounties wisely, and not to spoil them by our negligence or folly. No form of words, however pious, can undo the heavy burden of bad cookery or make an ill-dressed dinner fit for Christian eating. Perhaps it were more germane to the matter to ask the Divine blessing in the kitchen before the process of cooking the dinner is begun; for it is too often past praying for when it comes upon the table. We trust that the preaching of the Apostle Blot may be blest to our permanent edification, both of the body and the soul. We have special schools to teach the application of all kinds of sciences to practical uses, why not establish one of culinary chemistry? Or, better yet, why not have primary instruction in this most vital of all arts made a part of our common school education? Should the missionary labors of the admirable Blot be thus followed by a permanent improvement in good living, he will leave a savory memory behind him, and the date of his advent will be an era in the history of our civilization.

HOUSE-MOTHS.

THERE is as much charming suggestion in any article of feminine attire—a knot of ribbon, a little glove, a frill, a belt-clasp, a snowy edge of petticoat—as in a line of Tennyson's; and combine the suggestions in a toilette, there is a poem; but each year has its individuality. There are fossil years in which few poems are worn or written. There are years of warm vitality, war, and struggle, like the passionate days of a century back, such as the present; and warm vitality, war, and struggle are poem-makers and poem-stuff; hence, to-day, our streets and drawing-rooms burn and dazzle with the grace of those similar days that we had sighingly thought locked away in picture frames for ever. Miss Adams, in "Leighorn hat and gown and coat of Chambéri gauze, flounced with crape, and trimmed with point and wreaths of roses," needs no change of toilette to step from the drawing-room of 1786 into that of 1866; while Mollie, with crinkled hair piled high, with bands and curls, with dangling sequins and cameos, pendant ear-rings, waist cut square on the bosom, train, hoop, festooned skirt, and a jaunty bit of crape, derisively styled a hat, lost somewhere on the top of her head, between curls and coils; is Josephine, is Récamier, a Watteau shepherdess, a Titian, but never that meagre Mollie, whom we recall, with hair smooth on either cheek, and a poky bonnet that covered her back hair, shaded her face, and tied under her chin.

Indeed, a bonnet is no longer a reliable, steady-going, prosaic thing, but an inspiration; pity that an inspiration cannot be "made over!" A boot is a bit of coquetry; there are permitted to it satin heels and crystal buttons. There are fashions and devices for stockings, of which in the old days there was only required spotlessness. Red hair and the back of the head, with other despised things, have their day. Miss Smith wears diamond dust; Miss Brown prefers gold powder. The entire feminine world flutters and palpitates over daring jackets, ribbons, sashes, beads, and bows, for which 1865 would have never had the pluck. There is a raid through all the centuries for what is pretty and startling. The click of their little boot-heels has more than once resounded in provinces strictly masculine. They have robbed us of hat, necktie, coat-tail, vest, shirt, and boots, and we submit

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without an attempt at revenge, unless it be an intrepid doctor, here and there, solemnly dissecting a poor blue veil or an innocent green gown, and determining to a grain the arsenic contained therein. Broadway is a picture gallery *en promenade*. In our drawing rooms are revived the days of the Revolution and the Consulate. Plain girls have developed prettiness; pretty girls are beautiful; beautiful women are superb; all femininity apothecized in a continually ascending scale of loveliness.

To every good, however, is a reverse side of evil. With this increase of beauty increases also the curious pest classed by Ruskin as the "house-moth." It is found chiefly in cities, being rarely observed in the country, unless in the months of July and August, and is the most pernicious of its family, devouring clothes, houses, upholstery, gold, and diamonds, with the voracity of a dragon-fly and the omnivorous appetite of a shark. It is not a little curious about its habitation, and exhibits as much delight in any glittering substance as the bower-bird; but is as reckless as an ostrich of its young. It is also as changeable as the chameleon, and as capricious as a butterfly; but, unlike every other insect and animal, possesses a set of entirely useless organs in reasoning powers and affections, which are so manifestly an annoyance to the creature, and incompatible with its habits, that warm discussions have arisen among naturalists, many respectable authorities holding tenaciously to the belief that, just as the Bushman is a man lapsed into bestiality, so the "house-moth" is a woman lapsed wholly to bonnets and back-hair; and not without some show of reason, as so startling is the likeness of the creature to what we call a house-wife, that we have frequently seen a young man in full pursuit of one, evidently deceived by its extraordinary resemblance to a woman. Nothing can exceed the beauty of its appearance in its prime, unless it be its insignificance in the shrivelled and faded decadence to which, sooner or later, it is sure to arrive; and yet, spite of its insignificance, it is the most terrible and relentless enemy of man, devouring not only his means but, like the spider, its mate also: his tastes, comfort, and very individuality, till he is resigned at last to sink into—Mrs. House-moth's husband. Worst of all, though supposed indigenous to Europe, it is found to flourish equally well in our own hemisphere, and though a remedy has been anxiously hunted, the means of preventing its increase have not yet been discovered.

True, that eccentric logician, Fact, suggests that unused feminine energies and powers work off in ribbon and trimming outbreaks, for want of better outlet, and that women seize on fashion-plates with an intensity produced by mental starvation; but Fact, as all the world knows, is a theorist; and we ask ourselves, apprehensively, if there is no remedy—is there not, at least, a method of discerning our destroyers? We know the death's-head moth by the marks on the thorax, and can distinguish the humming-bird moth from its namesake; but by what subtle analysis or master-stroke of genius can we seize on the essential difference between a house-moth and a woman? Louis le Grand was reduced to Louis, a shivering, bald-headed nonentity, in a stroke of the pencil, when Thackeray robbed him of wig and buskins. Who will inaugurate a calico test in America—they have already a club de la Sainte Mousseline in Paris—and show us Mollie in print gown, and with hair brushed behind her ears, confronting Mollie in diamond dust and white velvet? and subtracting Metternich curls and Lamballe hats from the average Mollies, what will be the average remainder? It is an anxious question for a bachelor deeply conscious of his ignorance and defenseless condition. Who will answer it?

JEFFERSON DAVIS'S BILL-OF-FARE.

The uproar about Jefferson Davis's health has led to the publication by the New York *Times* of his bill-of-fare at breakfast and dinner for one week, in order to show that his diet has had nothing to do with the decline of his health. The document, which the correspondent of the *Times* calls by the impressive name of a "schedule of meals," certainly proves that whatever the cause of Mr. Davis's weakness may be, it is not want of food; but we at the same time feel bound to add that it does not reveal very extraordinary resources on the part of either the caterer or cook of the fortress, according to the notions of variety current in this part of the world. He had mutton chops three times in the week; he had beef-steak four times; he had veal cutlet three times; pork-steak he was only treated to once, but oysters appear to have been supplied to him at discretion. They made their appearance at every meal, either "panned" or stewed, and we notice with pleasure that that excellent anti-scorbutic, onions, was supplied to him regularly every day at his dinner. It may seem rather hard that "a scholar and a gentleman" should be condemned to such uniformity of diet, and some boarders at New York hotels will doubtless think the fate of a man so fed as little better than slow starvation. The gentleman who writes the lugubrious

articles on this subject in the *World and Daily News* very probably draws on Mr. Cranston's larder twice a day, and therefore must shudder on reading Mr. Davis's "schedule of meals." But it must be remembered that everybody does not live in New York hotels, and the food served to the prisoner at Fortress Monroe is probably twice as varied as that which he would get on nine out of every ten plantations in the South. We shall not compare it, as the *Times* does, to the stuff served out to the unhappy men who were confined at Andersonville. No matter whether Davis was responsible for the horrors of the prison pen or not, we owe it to ourselves to treat him like a human being, not like a wild animal. But we may fairly compare it to what he would get if he were staying on most out of the way plantations, and ask him frankly whether he would get beef-steak and oysters and veal cutlets half as often as he does in prison. The fact is, that most Southern men, who are not expert with their rod and gun, are, like farmers and country gentlemen everywhere, generally less familiar with fresh meat and fish than it is desirable they should be. One high official of the Confederacy gave a dinner to a distinguished foreign traveller, some years ago, on his plantation, and the bill of fare contained ten courses, all pork, but, of course, dressed in different styles, the reason being that there was no butcher or market within thirty miles. Davis having long resided in Washington must have become used to more generous fare, but then what he gets in Fortress Monroe is so very much better than what the mass of his countrymen get that we think he cannot in common decency complain.

Correspondence.

TOWN MEETINGS FOR GREAT CITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

An instructive article in THE NATION of May 15 enquires why it is that our American cities are the strongholds of conservatism, while in Europe it is from the cities that all progress proceeds. To this two answers are given: first, that unmixed universal suffrage makes our cities formidable; second, that trade has played a selfish part here as everywhere. These reasons are just and, perhaps, sufficient; we may add the consideration that we are in this country free from the two influences which chiefly cause the intense conservatism of the rural districts abroad—the great estates, which rule despotically over the farming population of England, and the ignorance and stolidity which prevail in this class in all parts of Europe. There is still another view which seems to deserve consideration.

Mr. Mill says: "The spirit of a commercial people will be, we are persuaded, essentially mean and slavish, wherever public spirit is not cultivated by an extensive participation of the people in the business of government in detail." In these words, as it seems to me, the solution to this problem may be found.

It is a curious fact that while, in history, cities have been the main source and the most conspicuous theatre of popular liberty, and while municipal government, as known in history, is identical in its nature with the pure democracy of our New England town governments, the term "city," venerable from these associations, is applied by us to communities which have stripped themselves of practical political rights to almost the furthest extent possible—retaining only the right of voting for officers, and the somewhat burdensome privilege of serving on juries.

The reason that the cities have thus disfranchised themselves politically is not far to seek. It is nothing more nor less than indifference to the public welfare. As a town becomes populous and rich, and its interests become wider and more complicated, the weight of private business, too, presses more and more heavily upon its citizens, and they find that they must choose between making a little less money than they otherwise might and withdrawing their attention from the affairs of the community. So they procure a city charter, the object of which is that they may have all their time to themselves, for their own private concerns, leaving the affairs that concern all alike to the uncontrolled management of hired officials. We lament the neglect of "primary meetings," and indeed of voting at all, by the wealthy and educated among the citizens. What wonder, when they have given up the greater right, that they should neglect the lesser? that when they will not attend to public affairs in person, they should come to care very little that those to whose control they leave them are corrupt and incompetent? It will only make the difference of a mill or so on the dollar in their taxes, and they will more than make that up in the time that they thus spare from the public interests and devote to their own. It was not thus the citizens of Athens and Rome, Florence, Ghent, and London argued;

had they so done, the history of those cities would have read very differently.

It is a proud day in the annals of a New England country town when, after much waiting and longing, it counts at last the magic number of ten thousand, and obtains a city charter. It reads well in the newspaper. It puts the town up into the aristocracy of towns. There is something respectable in the name "city." "Mayor" is a more dignified title than "Selectman." So the city government is inaugurated with many speeches and much ringing of bells and much firing of salutes. The people cease to govern themselves, and only choose, once a year, those who are to govern them. Instead of perhaps twenty hours in the twelvemonth, each citizen has now to bestow only ten minutes or so on the public business. Whereas he went two or three times in the year and listened to long debates on schools, roads, and bridges, and made his decision and gave his vote on each question as it came up; now he has nothing to do but put a slip of paper in a box containing a list of names that somebody has been so good as to prepare for him, and he has done his duty as a citizen, and there is all.

No, not quite all. Soon his tax bill comes round, and he finds that he has a good round sum to pay for the privilege of living in a city and shifting his duties and responsibilities upon somebody else. He sees incompetence, waste, fraud, extravagance; costly public buildings going up, when the community is already overburdened with taxes; costly public entertainments, municipal junketing, fat jobs. The work is paid high and not done well. In the midst of all this, the citizens are powerless. They have parted with the power of controlling their own affairs, and if they can contrive to fix the responsibility of the incompetence, waste, fraud, and extravagance upon any individual member or members of the city government—which is generally impossible—the only remedy is the tedious and insufficient one of turning him out of office, if they can, when the mischief is already done. No doubt this picture is over-drawn, or rather drawn from an example which is single in its enormity. But in all our cities the tendency is in this direction, while in the New England town governments the rule is that the work is well and cheaply done.

We may be told that all this is true, but yet that these abuses are a necessity—that the affairs of a large city cannot be transacted in the same way as those of a small town. No doubt this is so to some extent; but at any rate, the adoption of a city charter can be put off as long as possible. If Boston is too large to be governed by town meetings, Springfield and New Bedford are no larger than Florence and Paris were in their days of municipal splendor. Moreover, we must recognize the fact that the city organizations present the most perplexing and threatening aspect of all our Northern institutions. It concerns the nation—not merely this half million of men—that the first city of the continent should have a respectable and decent government; and what New York is, that, in their degree, all cities threaten to become. For all are alike characterized by almost complete abnegation of practical democracy, and by the fact that what is left of political power is to a great extent in the hands of foreign-born citizens, who have not the traditions and do not understand the usages of American democracy. The American institution of the "city" may be boldly declared a complete and (tacitly) acknowledged failure.

Already a very decided step has been taken towards the entire overthrow of democracy in these communities, in the Metropolitan Police, established in New York and other places. It is certain that there is nothing that more concerns the future success of our democratic institutions than the discovery of some means of reconciling in large cities municipal liberty with the welfare of the community. If democracy and good government cannot be reconciled, democracy must certainly go by the board, as is the case in these instances. But we should not give up the point too hastily. It is not democracy that is really in question; for democracy hardly exists in these communities. Political power resides not in the people, but in the mob; and this governs not in person, but by agents.

The practical question is, Why need the inhabitants of the cities be excluded from all actual share in government? Why should not the people of New York decide themselves upon all questions of magnitude and universal interest, instead of leaving their decision to the Board of Aldermen? Why should they not be allowed to say whether they will have a new city hall, an underground railroad, or one in the air—why leave these questions to the tender mercies of the lobby? It is as easy to drop a ballot with "yes" or "no" upon it as with the name of Hecker or Hoffman.

It will be objected that the right of voting upon these subjects would be a doubtful good if unaccompanied by free and exhaustive public discussion; and that, of course, town meetings in the New England style would be impossible in cities even much smaller than New York. This is very true. One method, however, occurs to me by which it might be possible to obtain

this discussion in a different way. The Romans had an institution, the *council*, invented to meet this precise want, the principle of which might perhaps be adopted by us. The *council* was not a private, irresponsible meeting, like a caucus; but was held under the auspices and presidency of some magistrate, who controlled its proceedings, and by whose permission alone any citizen could address it. It was characteristic of the Romans thus to lodge excessive power in the hands of their magistrates; but this is not an essential or desirable feature of the institution. The peculiarity of the *council* is that, while it was legal and official, it was strictly *preliminary* in its character. In the Roman *comitia*, as at our city polling booths, there was nothing done but to vote. The practical Roman mind saw that this was insufficient, and devised the *council* as a necessary adjunct to the *comitia*. Voting was still done in the regular and established assemblies, which not only chose magistrates, but passed laws; while this preparatory meeting was called beforehand for the discussion of important measures.

Something analogous to this could easily be grafted upon our municipal system, and would give it precisely the element it lacks, of constant and direct supervision of municipal affairs by the people. A certain class of subjects, of course, much more limited than in the New England towns, and embracing only matters of first importance, might be reserved for the vote of the citizens to decide. It should include, for instance, the levying of taxes, all extensive public works, and the general policy as regards schools, police, etc. The city authorities should draw up propositions under these various heads, and call a public meeting for their discussion. The meeting being simply for debate, not for business, of course no votes would be taken and no amendment adopted. The authorities could, if they saw fit, amend their plans after the discussion—whether convinced by the arguments advanced, or satisfied that they would not pass in the shape presented. Then let the propositions, in their final form, be printed and put in the hands of every citizen, and the vote be taken by yes and no upon an appointed day.

MARCEL.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Monday,
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THE money pressure has at last abated. On Saturday money was fairly abundant at 7 per cent., and to-day no increased demand is apparent. Owing to the willingness of the Treasury Department to receive, in payment for gold, deposit and debt certificates and compound interest notes, the last payments were made without difficulty. Some ten millions of these securities were sent into the Sub-Treasury by the banks. The prospect is now fair for a return to ease in the money market, and as the Secretary of the Treasury, by throwing away thirty odd millions of gold at 8 to 10 per cent. below the present price, has deprived himself of his control of the gold market and placed it out of his power to inaugurate any vigorous measures of contraction, the general belief is that we may see this summer renewed speculation in the currency and in stocks, and in all articles which are represented by money. This is just the opposite of what was expected by sound men at the commencement of the session of Congress. But it is idle to resist the logic of facts or to rely upon secretaries of the Treasury.

A better feeling prevails in commercial circles. The advance in gold has led to a nearly corresponding advance in produce, and, though prices here are far too high to admit of shipments at a profit, holders seem to think that the home market will absorb the surplus. Accounts from the South continue to vary, but we see as yet no reason for altering our estimate of the growing crop—2,000,000 bales.

The panic in England has unsettled the exchange market here. Sixty day bills are difficult of sale. Short sight bills on the best houses are current at 110½ to 111. The shipment of specie last week was \$9,350,000, and the present estimate is that six to seven millions will go out this week.

The Sub-Treasury balance after being \$115,000,000 is down to \$111,000,000, of which probably not over \$30,000,000 is gold. On Thursday next the interest on \$35,000,000 of debt certificates will cease, and it is likely that by that day the bulk of them will be presented for payment, thus dislodging a corresponding amount of currency now lying idle in the Sub-Treasury.

Stocks are rather disposed to react from the depression of the early part of last week. The cliques which paid a commission for the use of money more than once last week, and which would have been forced to disgorge had the pressure continued a few days longer, are now very anxious to get up a speculative furore in order to dispose of their lead. Active movements have been inaugurated in New York Central, which sold on Saturday at 95½, and to-day at 96½; in Pittsburgh, which sold as high as 96; in Reading, which sold on Saturday at 111½, and to-day at 112; etc., etc. Erie is neglected, and the tendency downward. Large lots of Government bonds arrived here from Europe, for sale, by the steamers last week, but the rise in

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Paid taxes, internal revenue stamp, war contribution, and law expenses.....	11,261 80
	\$1,118,901 25
Total.....	\$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank.....	\$250,036 56
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, \$2,140,775).....	2,115,431 25
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, \$51,453).....	52,561 50
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, \$231,015).....	333,923 15
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, \$55,888).....	48,500 00
Real estate (market value, \$250,000).....	140,819 74
Bonds and mortgages.....	250,747 02
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest.....	1,186,988 21
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1865.....	242,451 02
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866.....	60,930 59
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866.....	1,879 12
Premiums on policies in bands of agents and in course of transmission.....	197,601 54
	\$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring \$16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1865.	
Assets as above, at cost.....	\$1,881,919 70
(Market value, \$5,018,449 06)	
Disposed of as follows:	
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1865.....	\$78,841 45
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs.....	26,000 00
Reserved for special deposit for minor children.....	283 75
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuation at 4 per cent. interest).....	3,520,297 66
Reserved for:	
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand.....	118,211 88
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid.....	22,895 00
Dividend, 1865 (present value).....	315,042 00
Dividend, 1866 (present value).....	406,117 00
Special reserve (not divided).....	181,228 95
	\$1,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier
CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., Medical Examiner
GEORGE WILKES, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner

Russell Sturgis, Jr.,

ARCHITECT,
98 Broadway, New York.

Vaux, Withers & Co.,
ARCHITECTS,
110 Broadway.

Olmsted, Vaux & Co.,
LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTS.

The undersigned have associated under the above title for the business of advising on matters of location, and furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMS TED,
CALVERT VAUX,
FRED'K C. WITHERS.
110 Broadway,
New York, January 1, 1866.

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Garments made to order.

GENTS' FURNISHING GOODS,

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We are now selling a large and complete stock of Ready-made Clothing for Gents' and Boys' wear, at from 10 to 40 per cent. below former prices.

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BRONZE AND PARIAN STATUETTES AND GROUPS,

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Superior to any others in the following particulars:

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They are more burglar-proof.

They are perfectly dry.

They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.

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